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ABSTRACT

Indo-Chinese immigrants to Western countries often have some knowledge of French. When the language of the community to which they have come is related to French, favorable and unfavorable language learning situations may arise. In the case of immigration to English-speaking countries, some specific lexical transfer processes may occur because French and English are lexically interrelated. The relevance of this situation to the teaching of English to this category of language learners is considered. Eighty-eight subjects, recent immigrants to the U.S. with minimal English knowledge, read Vietnamese sentences and were asked to demonstrate English and French knowledge of a designated word within each sentence, by means of a translation task. For cases of French knowledge, transfer effects of lexical items seemed to overrule the effect of word knowledge. Subjects demonstrated better knowledge of English-French cognates than formal contrasts, and better knowledge of formal contrasts than misleading cognates. Both recognition and production of English were considered. Psycholinguistic and linguistic aspects of the problem are discussed. General suggestions are made for teaching a third language when it is linguistically related to a second language, but unrelated to the person's first language. (Author/AMH)

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Department of Applied Linguistics

THE LEXICAL TRANSFER EFFECT OF FRENCH KNOWLEDGE
IN THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH BY NATIVE
VIETNAMESE SPEAKERS

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The Lexical Transfer Effect of French Knowledge on English Language by the
Native Vietnamese Speaker.

Vietnamese and other Indo-Chinese immigrants to Western countries often know some French before they try to acquire the language of their new homeland. If this country is French speaking, then there is no problem, but the situation is different when the new language is German, Dutch or English. This is particularly a problem in the last case because English and French are highly lexically related, and some specific lexical transfer processes may arise when immigrants already know some French.

In the first part of this paper we consider the importance of this question for teaching English to this category of language learners. In the second part we try to conceptualize it psycholinguistically, and linguistically in the third part. Some specific hypotheses are formulated in the fourth section, which are tested in the fifth: When Vietnamese know the particular French words (L2), English words (L3) which are cognates of French words are easier to recognize and to produce than those which are formal contrasts, and the latter, in turn, are easier than misleading cognates. Since Vietnamese (L1) is unrelated to either French or English, neither positive nor negative transfer is assumed from that language (apart from French borrowings in Vietnamese, which are relatively few in number). In the sixth section we draw conclusions from the gathered data for psycholinguistic theory on lexical transfer processes in multilingual settings, and in the final part, some implications for teaching are presented.

Vietnamese immigrants to the U.S. and their French bias: How to teach them English.

In the past 15 years, several hypotheses have been formulated about foreign language acquisition processes in relation to the mother tongue: (1) the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) in its strong and weak variations about the role of the mother tongue in foreign language use--contrasts with the native language should predict, or at least explain, difficulties in learning a foreign language; (2) the interlanguage hypothesis (ILH) which proposes perfect L2 mastery next to L1, proceeding according to some systematic stages reflected by specific errors; and (3) the identity hypothesis (IDH) which suggests that L2 acquisition is, to a large extent, similar to L1 acquisition. What all these hypotheses have in common is that they have been mostly examined in rather exploratory studies on the syntactic level (CAH, IDH and ILH) and on the morphological level (ILH and IDH), but hardly at all on the lexical level (that is, lexicon in the sense of content words, and less in the sense of function words which operate mostly on the syntactic level).

In recent American books on second language acquisition (Hatch, 1978) and second language reading (Mackay et al., 1979), some attention is paid to the lexicon, but hardly any to lexical contrasts with the first language (not to be confused with the use of the first language through translation), and there is no mention of cases where three or more languages are involved (as in the case of Vietnamese refugees coming to the U.S. with some knowledge of another language, such as French).

Only in the last few years has there been an increasing interest in the teaching of the English lexicon. This is reflected in contributions to the TESOL Quarterly and Proceedings of TESOL Conventions (Martin, 1976; Richards, 1976; Judd, 1978; and Rivers & Best, 1978). In none of these cases, however, is there focus on lexical contrasts with other languages. There are a few recent exceptions, however, particularly for a related language pair like English-French, which is of specific relevance to Indo-Chinese immigrants. In 1976, Hammer & Monod published an English-French cognate dictionary (cognate = same or similar form with same meaning, like the French and English word orange). In 1978, Hammer also contributed an extensive literature survey on cognates and misleading cognates (same or similar form with different meaning, like [French car = English bus] ≠ [English car = French voiture]). Her study deals basically with English and French, but also with English-Spanish and English-German, dating back to 1920. She pointed out a void, however, in the literature, dealing with misleading cognates as they relate to negative transfer. Very recent attempts to teach misleading cognates in the ESL classroom are from Wilcox & Lehman (1980), for English-Spanish and English-French speakers.

As far as we know, until now, there have been no studies investigating what happens when immigrants have a native language completely unrelated to English (i.e., Arabic, Japanese, Chinese, Vietnamese) and already know another European language related to English (i.e., French, German or Spanish). Considering the fact that a massive number of Indo-Chinese immigrants are coming to the U.S. (300,000 in January, 1980, and growing ever since), this question is important for developing strategies for teaching English to such people.

The case of the Vietnamese: What exactly is their French bias?

There were two important waves of Vietnamese immigration to the U.S. and other countries -- one that started in 1975 with the reuniting of Vietnam under one communist regime, and one that started in 1979 with the expulsion of ethnic Chinese from Vietnam. There existed an educational difference between the two groups, with the education level of the first being, on the average, higher than that of the second. Consequently, the first group was exposed to more French than the second. Table 1 gives an indication of the structure of the educational system, regarding foreign language instruction, in Vietnam. University education is excluded, since this represents a very restricted population.

Foreign language education (French and English) of Vietnamese immigrants to the U.S.

<u>Age</u>	<u>School Period</u>	<u>Foreign Language Taught in Primary School (PS) and Secondary School (SS)</u>
> 52	before 1945	in PS and SS, curriculum in French; in SS, English language teaching was included.
52-43	1945-54	in PS, curriculum in Vietnamese; French language taught 10 hours/week for 5 years; in SS, curriculum in French. French language taught 24 hours/week for 7 years, while English language was taught 3 hours/week for the last 3 years.
43-22	1954-75	in PS, no foreign language instruction; in SS, first 4 years, English or French was taught 7 hours/week and during the last 3 years, French and English were each taught 4 hours/week.
22-18	1975-79	in PS, no foreign language instruction; in SS, English or French was taught for 3 hours/week for the entire 7 years.

(Information gathered from Vietnamese teachers of foreign languages and immigrants to the U.S.)

Table 1

A few additional comments are necessary in order to complete the picture of the educational system. From 1862 to 1945, the Vietnamese education system was heavily influenced by French cultural domination (Duong, 1978). Chinese or French language and culture was emphasized, rather than that of the Vietnamese. In addition, literary education was stressed to the detriment of vocational and technical education, and memorization and imitation were encouraged, at the expense of initiatives in problem solving. Between 1954 and 1975, the country was split into a communist Northern part and an American dominated Southern part. We refer, here, to the situation in the Southern part. Immigrants report that there was no English teaching in the North during this period, only French. Finally, since 1954, all curricula are in Vietnamese. Reports about the situation since 1978 are somewhat confusing. There has been only one foreign language taught in some cases, with Russian, English, French, Chinese or Japanese being learned at home, with private instructors.

It is, therefore, a fair assumption that immigrants educated before 1954 (older than 43 years of age) learned much French. Those educated later probably have some knowledge of French as well as English (except those educated at private French institutions, who would have a far better knowledge of French). Refugees without secondary school education, younger than 43 years of age, have no French knowledge. This category is highly representative of the second wave of immigration. Furthermore, personnel at Vietnamese resettlement centers in the San Francisco Bay Area estimates that 10% of the Vietnamese adult refugees (older than 18 years) have learned

French. In absolute terms, this figure warrants paying particular attention to the French bias of Vietnamese immigrants, in their acquisition of English.

This is of particular interest since English and French share 10,993 cognates which could be facilitating, but also 950 misleading cognates which could be a considerable interference (Hammer, 1978). It is interesting to note, therefore, that in their manual for Indo-Chinese refugee education, Grognet et al. (1976) do not list the French bias among the sources of difficulty or facilitating factors in learning English. While pronunciation and grammar problems are discussed, vocabulary is not.

Further evidence about the extent to which French interferes or helps Vietnamese immigrants acquiring English may show the way to more efficient teaching of such people. In addition, such knowledge may have implications for teaching English to other people with a good knowledge of the French language.

Psycholinguistic aspects of the problem.

What happens when a Vietnamese already knows some French when acquiring or using English? In order to conceptualize the lexical transfer processes involved, we have to consider how people listen, speak, read and write in their native language (L1). Moreover, we will consider the literature relevant to instances of existing or developing bilingualism (second language acquisition), in particular, the relationship between lexicon(s) and conceptual system(s). In the case of the Vietnamese immigrants

even more than two languages are involved, so we will expand upon that topic appropriately.

It is a commonplace observation that efficient foreign language (FL) communication depends heavily upon the correct comprehension or the production of the FL lexicon. Pidgins, which are often highly communicative, economize, first, on syntax and morphology, and less on lexicon. Even if their lexicon is simplified, there is still available a minimal lexicon related to a reduced conceptual system. Since any communication is oriented to share concepts between the speaker and listener, or the writer and reader, more study of semantic or conceptual aspects of FL lexicon use is needed. In 1954, Ervin and Osgood emphasized that the semantic aspects of second language learning and bilingualism have been neglected, and we think that, even in 1980, this is still true.

Stress on lexicon does not mean that the other levels of language are not to be considered in FL communication. A workable model should take all of the different levels in one integrated view. A good example of such a model is the psycholinguistic model of the language user in man (Kempen, 1976), which relies on results of experimental studies as well as speculative thought. This model seems to be appropriate as a framework for reflection upon FL reading, listening, writing and speaking; however, we will limit our discussion to reading and writing.

The process of reading involves several subsystems, as shown in Figure 1.

The Language User in Man: The Reader

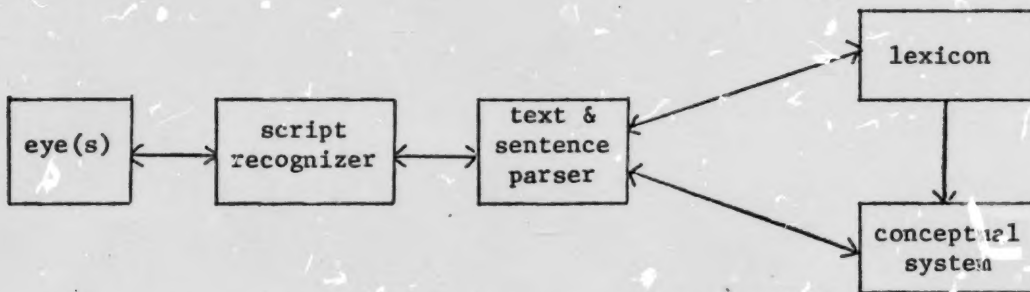


Figure 1

The eye perceives letters and blanks, then the script recognizer tries to identify the script (asking, e.g., whether the graphemic conventions are familiar, what language the text is written in, etc.), and identify phonological units such as phonemes and syllables. Crucial is the functioning of the sentence parser as its task is to detect the "conceptualization" underlying each sentence of an input text. The parser starts out with the results obtained by the script recognizer, uses its own syntactic knowledge and has access to conceptual system and lexicon for such information. The parser can operate either by means of syntactically or conceptually guided analysis.

Writing also involves several processes, as shown in Figure 2.

The Language User in Man: The Writer

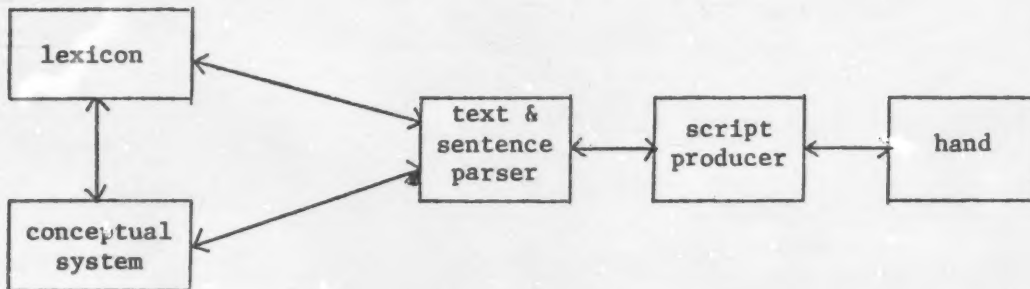


Figure 2

Crucial in this framework is the operation of the sentence generator: it conceptualizes a sentence, as aimed at by the conceptual system, and formulates it by retrieving the correct word from the lexicon and providing a correct syntactic structure. Then, the script producer chooses the appropriate script to write a sentence, splitting it up into letters, words and blanks. Beyond the formulation of the sentence is the task of punctuating the sentences, and putting them into paragraphs. Finally, it is the mechanism of the human hand which makes the sentence visible to the reader (whether it is written, typed, or whatever). Conceptualizing and formulating may be a (partial) parallel or a serial process.

As far as FL reading is concerned, there is some evidence that lexicon is really a major factor in comprehension, even more so than syntax. The results of the Shadok project and subsequent experiments (Ulijn, 1977, 1978, 1979a, 1980a, 1980b, and in press) demonstrate that FL reading is not as much syntactically guided as it is conceptually guided. FL readers generally focus, first, on content words of the text in order to comprehend, and, if necessary, then use syntactic information. This means that

syntactic difficulties such as syntactic contrasts with their L1 often remain unnoticed. On the lexical level, however, content words appeared to be more difficult to comprehend than syntactic function words, and ambiguous words more than unambiguous ones. Lexicalization (i.e., retrieving the correct word in the lexicon starting from the conceptual system), also, is an important operation in formulating the correct sentence in the model of the language user in man (Kempen, 1977 and 1978). We, therefore, think it is important to see, in more detail, how the conceptual system and lexicon are organized, and how they are interrelated in cases of more than one language.

Lexicon and conceptual system in bilingualism and second language acquisition.

As we wish to examine the role of the lexicon with respect to several languages in the human brain, theories on the specific nature of the lexicon in bilingualism, trilingualism, etc., are particularly relevant. We deliberately leave out theoretical proposals about the general lexicalization processes (see, for instance, the models of Morton, 1970, and Forster, 1976), but we will try to account for the effects of different factors which play a role when relating words to concepts in reading, or relating concepts to words in writing. High frequency, recent usage, context, semantic apparency with other well known concepts, and conceptual lexical knowledge play roles in reading and writing. Specifically related to reading are homonymy and polysemy, and to writing, synonymy and phonological accessibility (Clark & Clark, 1977, and Schreuder & Levelt, 1978).

Important is the notion of context, which allows the reader to infer the meaning of a given word (see Mosenthal et al., 1978, for a recent proposal on a multicontext model of word recognition). In so far as context relates to the inner knowledge of the human being, it is included in the construct of the conceptual system. The conceptual system also includes knowledge of grammar, syntax, morphology and the like. The complexity of the organization of the conceptual system is clearly demonstrated by work in the area of artificial intelligence.

All these factors have impact on the functioning of the lexicon and conceptual system in any language (L1, L2, L3, etc.). This discussion will focus more on the links between several languages when they merge in the brain when reading and writing L2 or L3.

What exactly is bilingualism? The literature on that topic dates back from long ago and is confusing. Usually, a distinction is made between compound, coordinate, and sometimes, subordinate bilingualism, but these terms have divergent connotations (Diller, 1970). After defining these terms, we will focus more on available experimental evidence of how the conceptual system and lexicon are organized in typical cases of bilingualism.

Compound bilingualism would be developed through experience in fused contexts such as speaking L1 at home and learning L2 at school, or where the same family members use two languages interchangeably to refer to the same environmental events (when first and second language acquisition occurs simultaneously, it is often difficult to decide which is first or second). Coordinate bilingualism would be developed through experiences

in different linguistic communities where languages are rarely interchanged (and first and second language acquisition occurs successively). Subordinate bilingualism would be developed in a monolingual situation where another language is spoken and where foreign languages are taught in school. Often, several languages are "subordinated" to the native language, as in Dutch secondary school, where Dutch is the native language and French, German, English and, sometimes, Spanish or Russian are learned rather simultaneously. If rank order is used (first, second, etc.), it refers mostly to the importance of respective languages in the amount of learning or actual use.

A child born to a Vietnamese family living in the U.S., who goes to an American school, would develop compound bilingualism. A Vietnamese adult, migrating to the U.S., acquiring ESL would develop coordinate bilingualism, and a Vietnamese adolescent learning English or French in a Vietnamese secondary school would develop subordinate bilingualism. The validity of the compound-coordinate dichotomy, originated by Weinreich (1954), has received some empirical evidence from aphasia research. Bilingual aphasics who learned their languages in a coordinate fashion are more likely to lose the use of only one of their languages, whereas compound bilinguals show a more general language deficit of the two languages, when they become aphasic (Lambert & Fillenbaum, 1959).

The psycholinguistic basis for these sociolinguistic definitions of bilingualism is much more difficult to define, which can be seen in the efforts to measure language dominance of bilinguals, by Lambert (1972). Some of the basic propositions are outlined here.

In an early article, Ervin & Osgood (1954) propose two lexicons and two conceptual systems for the compound bilingualism, and two lexicons and one conceptual system for coordinate bilingualism, as diagrammed in Figure 3.

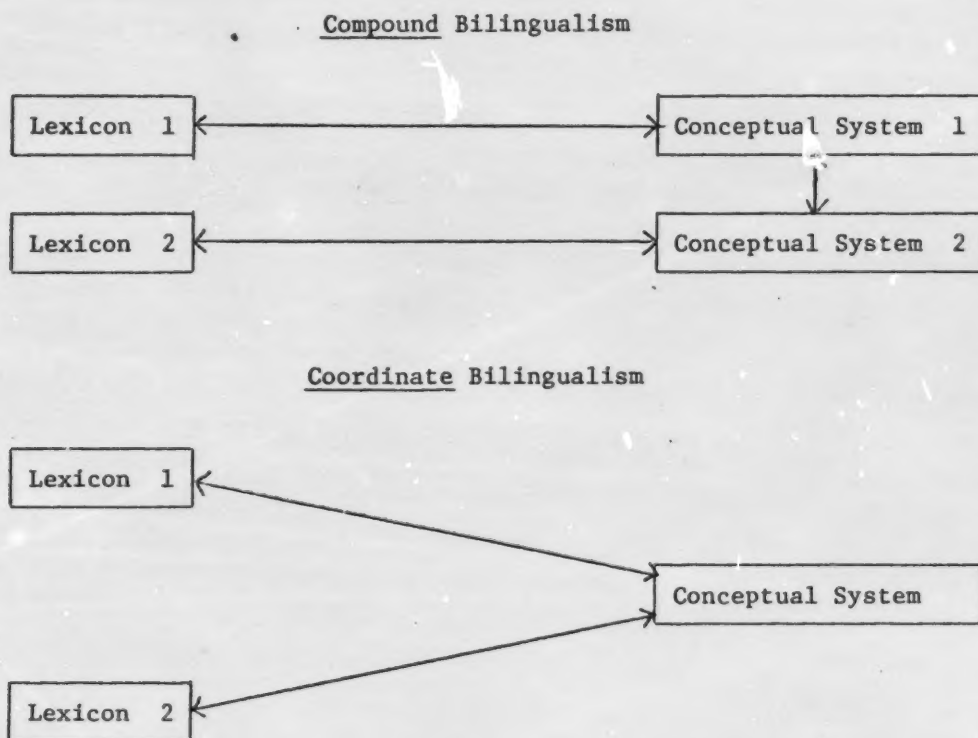


Figure 3

In the situation of reading aloud, by bilinguals, Kolers (1963, 1966) proposes two alternatives: (1) with switch -- where the two lexicons and conceptual systems are stored separately (independent storage), and (2) without switch -- where the two lexicons and conceptual systems are stored centrally (interdependent storage). Based on experimental results, he decided that there is a switch, as it takes time to go from L1 to L2. Macnamara (1971) drew the same conclusion, whereas Neufeld (1976) decided on no switch and one lexical store for L1 and L2, as he did not find significant differences between reading L1-L2 mixed passages and unilingual passages (L1 or L2)

aloud. The nature of the conceptual system or semantic store is not clear in this approach. Since reading aloud is a mixture of language processing and language production (and semantic aspects were not examined), it is hard to say, on the basis of these results, how the conceptual system and lexicon operate when reading or writing one or another language.

The interdependent single lexical storage and retrieval and the independent double lexical storage and retrieval are also researched with respect to bilingual memory. McCormack (1976) argues, on the basis of seven studies, that sufficient data have been collected to enable him to conclude that the single store position makes more sense both in terms of economy and in terms of its predictive and explanatory power. However, as in Koler's work, it is not clear if a distinction is made between memory for lexical labels and semantic memory. Moreover, memory tests comprised of recall after learning, which may be different from (un)conscious use of the lexicon in recognition and production as reflected in normal listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Our idea is that two lexicons should be necessary, and one single conceptual system should be sufficient to account for a brain in which two languages are operating. Separate lexicons for separate languages seem to be needed to allow a speaker to avoid constantly mixing the languages. There is plausible experimental evidence for the same conceptual system for all languages. In 1962, Rosenzweig compared word-association responses in English, French, German, and Italian, and found that, across languages, similar associations tend to occur among words of similar meaning. This effect was observed regardless of differences in verbal forms. Steinberg (1975) supplied evidence that speakers of Chinese, Finnish, Japanese and Slovenian share the same conceptual system for determining semantic sentence interpretations.

Of course, a given language is an important means of expression of culture, and, therefore, not all concepts are shared by all languages. This explains the possibility of semantic shifts in bilinguals, as shown by Ervin-Tripp (1961), in color-naming by Navaho-English bilinguals (as Navaho and English speakers use different color systems). Normally, human beings will have many more concepts in common than different. Therefore, how can we account for different response patterns in word association (for instance, the results of Lambert, Havelky & Crosby, 1972, and Heuer, 1973)? The number of entries in the lexicons and the conceptual system is unstable, as is their inner organization. Words and concepts go in and out as a function of learning and forgetting. The manner of learning will probably determine how concepts and words are stored, and this, in turn, will determine the way they are going to be retrieved. Therefore, what can be retrieved from the conceptual system through Lexicon 1 (and vice-versa) may be different in organization from what Lexicon 2 allows to be retrieved from the same conceptual system. In some bilinguals, however, the organization may be the same for both languages, as shown by free recall experiments of Young & Wavar (1968).

The relationship between one conceptual system and two lexicons.

One frequent case of bilingualism would involve a child born to a Vietnamese family already settled in the U.S. for some time. This child would build the conceptual system through access to two languages, one at home (Vietnamese) and the other at school (English). Some concepts will go into the conceptual system under a Vietnamese lexical label, and others will enter with an English label. When the school and the home settings

are dealing with the same concepts, there will be a double Vietnamese-English label, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Relationship Between the Lexicons and the Conceptual System



Figure 4

Little translation will take place, as there is no direct relation between Lexicon 1 and Lexicon 2. When both languages are equally dominant, this represents a balanced bilingual speaker. This is considered compound bilingualism (however note that Ervin & Osgood, 1954, as previously stated, propose this to be coordinate bilingualism).

A second common bilingual situation occurs when a Vietnamese adult, whose conceptual system is almost finalized, comes to the U.S. In this case, English acquisition will reflect an English lexical re-labeling of known concepts by inner translation (a direct relationship between Lexicon 1 is established). Some Vietnamese concepts will be specific for that culture, and nonexistent in English (semantic voids), and others will be acquired with the English label, although they may exist in the Vietnamese society (for instance, technical concepts learned in the U.S.). This situation can be diagrammed as in Figure 5.

Relationship Between Lexicons and Conceptual System (With Semantic Voids)

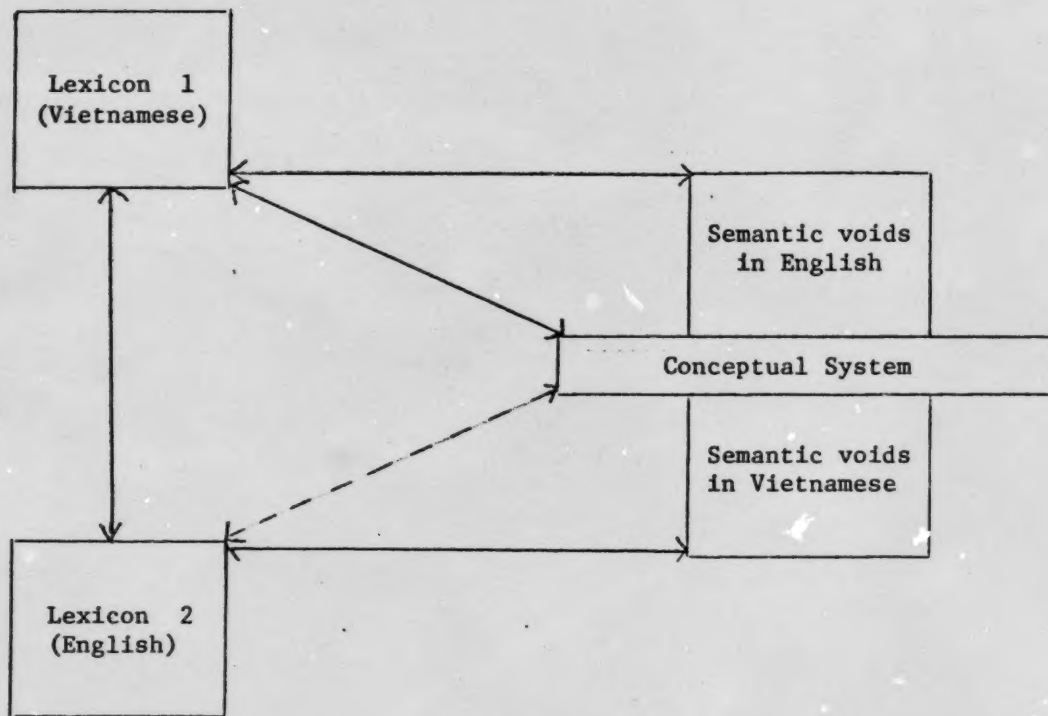


Figure 5

This could be considered coordinate bilingualism. As long as English experience develops, the direct relation between Lexicon 2 and the conceptual system gets stronger, and the relation between Lexicon 1 and Lexicon 2 gets weaker. The detour via Lexicon 1 (translation) is no longer necessary. Consequently, if this transformation process is strong enough, coordinate bilingualism could turn into compound bilingualism.

In the second case, which is of particular interest to us here, translation back and forth through Lexicon 1 provides a clear delineation of concepts, which is important for effective communication in the second language. This could be the reason why learners systematically avoid words that have

no equivalent in their native language (Blum & Levenston, 1978). It may also elucidate why teaching of new words explained by native language equivalents appeared to be more effective than teaching by explanation in the target language. In this respect, development of subordinate bilingualism, as focused on in the aforementioned experiments, will be rather similar to development of coordinate bilingualism.

We may conclude, as did Albert & Obler (1978), that, although the notions of compound and coordinate bilingualism may be difficult to define, they serve to remind us that acquisition parameters may influence the way in which a second language is organized in later life. Age of acquisition and manner of acquisition must be considered factors which influence anatomical mechanisms of bilingualism. One must approach the issue of labeling an individual as a compound bilingual with caution, however. It is likely that certain systems (phonology, perception, production, deep semantics) will appear compound for all bilinguals, while other systems, (lexicon, syntax) will appear coordinate, to a greater or lesser extent. The language perception and the language production systems, as previously described, are, to some extent, independent of each other. In the assessment of bilingualism, it, therefore, makes sense to differentiate between perception (comprehension or recognition) and production and to see whether the lexicalization procedures involved in reading are different from those of writing. Furthermore, it is also important to know what happens when more than two languages are involved, and to what extent the relations between conceptual system and lexicons depend on degree of formal similarity of the languages involved. A discussion of these topics follows.

Acquisition of several non-native languages and the lexical transfer processess.

What happens to the lexicons and the conceptual system when more than two languages co-occur? As with bilinguals, effective multilingualism depends upon many factors such as simultaneous or successive acquisition and age of acquisition of the different languages. One of the main factors seems to be similarity of the acquired languages. Particularly in the case of related languages, the tendency to transfer from L1 to L2 or from L2 to L3 seems to be very strong. The definition of transfer or interference varies a lot in the literature on second language acquisition. For the purpose of this discussion, positive transfer leads to correct L2 and L3 use, while negative transfer or interference leads to incorrect use of L2 or L3 (for a terminological discussion, see Rattunde, 1971). Kellerman (1978) argues that the transfer from L1 items in L2 expressions is an active learning strategy depending upon the learner's notion of distance between L1 and L2. Some L2 items are more likely to be transferred than others to the extent that they are believed to be less native language specific. This is demonstrated in an experiment where Dutch subjects had to judge the acceptability of English or German (L2) polysemous lexical items (English break/ German brechen/ Dutch breken). The core meaning of these lexical items shared by L1 and L2 was more likely to be transferred than more idiomatic and figurative meanings. Ulijn (1978) reviewed the research on the transfer phenomenon related to L2 production, and found that things which are nearly similar in two languages often seem more difficult than complete differences (Juhasz, 1970).

In the cases of three languages, there are four combinations of possible relatedness, as follows:

1. L1 - L2 - L3
u u

2. L1 - L2 - L3
r r

3. L1 - L2 - L3
u r

4. L1 - L2 - L3
r u

u = unrelated
r = related

Very little literature is available about lexical transfer processes involved in Combinations 1, 3 and 4, while there is some information on the second combination. The learning of foreign languages in The Netherlands is a case in point, as nearly every secondary school student learns English, French, and German practically simultaneously. Although it is hard to define L2, L3, and L4 in chronological order, incidences of interference are interesting. Ickenroth (1976) argues that when a particular L1 student (Dutch) does not know a L2 word (French), for instance, one of his "escape" routes is adapting a word from L1 or from L3 (English), etc. He would provide the Dutch koper/ English copper with a French pronunciation koper. Knibbeler (1977) surveyed French errors made by Dutch adults with some school knowledge of French, English and German. He found some lexical interference from English and not as much from German, which is much less related to French than English is. (Dutch speakers normally know English and German better than French, as these languages are more closely related to Dutch than is French. Furthermore, the Dutch speakers usually have more exposure to English and German than to French.) For the past 10 years, the same lexical transfer and interference has been noted in French

spoken and written by Dutch engineering students in French courses at Eindhoven University of Technology (Ulijn, personal observations). On the basis of English compositions written by 187 bilingual students, LoCoco (1976) concludes that the less equally balanced bilingual learner tends to rely more on his stronger language, while the more equally balanced bilingual learner relies less on the previously acquired languages (and this reliance appears to be evenly distributed over German and Spanish). Since both German and Spanish are rather equally related to English, no preference can be given to transfer from either language.

What could be predicted, then, for a Vietnamese knowing some French? This falls into our third classification of relatedness, as Vietnamese (L1) is unrelated to French (L2) which, in turn, is related to English (L3). Since unrelatedness implies no transfer, neither negative transfer nor interference can take place. The second language, French, has only to be acquired. In learning the third language, English, which is related to French and unrelated to Vietnamese, the learner would not have any help or interference from Vietnamese, but could from French. The conceptual system and lexicons can be diagrammed as in Figure 6 (for simplicity, the semantic voids are omitted).

Three Lexicons and Their Relationship to the Conceptual System

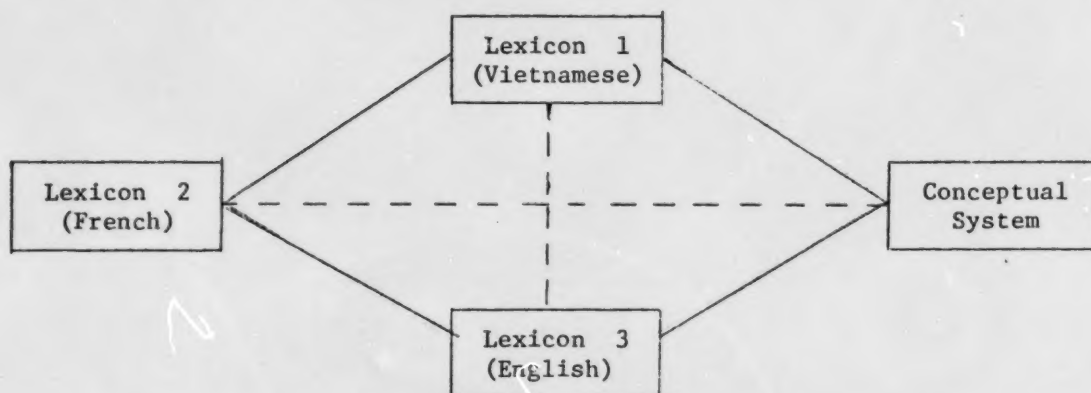


Figure 6

The Vietnamese learner of English would use the route Lexicon 3 -- Lexicon 2 -- Lexicon 1 -- Conceptual System in the recognition of an English word, and the exact opposite route for English production. If the direct link between Lexicon 2 and the conceptual system is strong enough, it is possible to skip L1. Short cuts Lexicon 3 -- Lexicon 1 -- Conceptual System and Lexicon 3 -- Conceptual System would be possible at latter stages of increasing compound trilingualism. This L2 -- L3 interference rather than L1 -- L3 interference seems to correspond to anecdotal evidence on the phonological level. A Zairese speaker with perfect knowledge of Tshiluba (L1) and French (L2) would speak English (L3) with a French accent (Ferguson, Note 1). Similar L2 -- L3 interference, where L1 is related to both L2 and L3, has been experienced by one of the present authors (Adele Donn) where she would transfer the French "r" (L2) and not the English "r" (L1) to Spanish (L3).

Linguistic aspects of the problem and types of lexical contrasts between Vietnamese, French and English.

In order to predict what happens when a Vietnamese speaker tries to transfer knowledge to English lexical recognition and production, we need a framework to describe adequately lexical contrasts. After having reviewed several techniques of contrastive analysis available in the literature, Ulijn (1978) proposes a schema where both conceptual structure and linguistic form of words vary. A total of 12 types of contrasts can be reduced to three basic categories:

1. Cognates (C): words which have the same or similar spellings (form) and meanings (concept) in two or more languages, regardless of their origins. For example, English table and French table, where L1 = L2 in both concept and form.

2. Formal Contrasts (FC): words which have a completely different spelling and the same meaning. For example, English window and French fenêtre, where $L1 = L2$ in concept but $L1 \neq L2$ in form.

3. Faux-amis, Deceptive or Misleading Cognates (MC): words which have the same or similar spellings but different meanings in two or more languages. For example, English pain = French chagrin while French pain = English bread. In this case, $L1 \neq L2$ in concept but $L1 = L2$ in form. The misleadingness, of course, is a hypothesis, and not an assumption. Note that the terms concept and meaning are used in the same way in this discussion. For a further discussion on possible definitions, see Carroll (1964), Ulijn (in press) and recent literature on linguistic semantics.

A brief discussion should be made of some of the details of the specific languages involved. Firstly, Vietnamese is a tonal language spoken by 50 million people in Vietnam. The Northern dialect has six tones, the Southern has five. As one of the rare languages in southeast Asia, it uses a Roman letter alphabet (quốc ngữ) developed by 16th century Spanish missionaries to replace native Chinese characters. The tones are denoted by diacritical marks. Phonologically, syntactically and lexically, Vietnamese is unrelated to both French and English. There are some loan words from French, because of a century of French domination, but their spelling is often drastically modified (in the Vietnamese-English dictionary of Nguyen Dinh Hoa, 1971, French loan words are specifically noted). Before 1954, the year of the French withdrawal from Vietnam, there was also a French pidgin (Tây Bôi) which is no longer spoken (Phillips, 1975). Reinecke (1971) states that remarkably few Vietnamese words were used in this pidgin. French loan words

and pidginized French words that are widely known by Vietnamese speakers are so modified from original French that the Vietnamese speakers have to master French as a completely different language from Vietnamese.

For historical reasons, French and English have a strong lexical relationship, even though English is a Germanic language and French is a Romance language. As Hammer (1978) points out, the numbers of cognates and misleading cognates between French and English is three times more than between other related language pairs such as English/Spanish and English/German. Some of these occur in more complicated relationships (for example, English gas = French essence and gaz, while gas and gaz are cognates, gas and essence are misleading cognates). However, the three basic lexical relationships (C, FC, MC) seem to be the most frequent between French and English.

What are the origins of the misleading cognates in the borrowing process between two languages? They may reveal some general underlying psycholinguistic phenomena when either language is used in a multilingual setting.

At one time in the history of a language, a transfer takes place from one language to another as a cognate. These words, however, are often used in the new linguistic community for specific other needs without consulting the original linguistic community. This can be particularly harmful in the area of technical and scientific terminology, where misleading cognates between languages could create serious misunderstandings. After World War II, new technical terms were standardized in international committees to avoid divergent uses of such terms in different languages (Ulijn, 1979b). Still, not all human activities are covered, as French éditeur = English publisher while English editor = French rédacteur, just to mention one example.

The same tendency to create misleading cognates can also be seen in early child language, for example, when the English word king fuses with the Estonian word kinni (meaning closed) (Vihman, 1979). An important cause for this is the child's misperception of the input language(s). On the basis of previous findings, Vihman argues that the child's goal almost seems to be the production of a maximum number of lexical items with a minimum repertoire of sound shapes. A child does not avoid homonyms, but rather makes use of them, while more sophisticated semantic and syntactic means are being elaborated. A child tries to use the same word for different meanings, playing around with form and concept, and goes easily from one language to another in a bilingual setting.

A similar phenomenon can often be observed in the development of pidgins. Grass, in Neo-Melanesian pidgin, would be anything that grows outward from a surface in a blade-like shape, and this would replace other original L1 words (Hall, 1966). In this meaning, grass becomes a misleading cognate of the English word with the same spelling.

The creation of misleading cognates between languages seems to be a very natural process in bilingual development at the community level, as well as on an individual basis. When people acquire a new language after their native or other languages, they must be aware of these formal and conceptual similarities, particularly in cases where the languages are as similar as French and English.

What is the relative difficulty of cognates, formal contrasts and misleading cognates between existing and new languages when acquiring the new? Previously, we mentioned some evidence about general English-French interference. There is some specific experimental evidence pertaining to the distinctions between C, FC, and MC (albeit not in the Vietnamese --

French-English situation). In the Shadok project (Ulijn, 1978), Dutch engineering students appeared not only to be hampered by misleading cognates with their L1 (Dutch), but also with their L2 (English), when reading L3 (French). Misleading cognates were significantly more difficult than Dutch-English-French cognates, such as international technical terms. In continued word association tasks with cognates and formal contrasts, by French-English bilinguals, more response words to cognates than to formal contrasts tended to be similar (Taylor, 1976). Relationships within the conceptual system are, therefore, more obvious with cognates than with formal contrasts. In a study on lexical errors in English compositions written by Finnish and Swedish secondary school students, both Finns, who knew Swedish very well, and Swedes, who did not know much Finnish, made a large number of errors on Swedish-English misleading cognates (Wikberg, 1979). The Finns made even more errors than the Swedes (11.4% versus 8.4% of the total number of errors for each population). This situation is highly comparable to the Vietnamese case as Finnish (L1) is unrelated to Swedish (L2), which is, in turn, related to English (L3). Our attention should now focus on what predictions can be made, partly on the basis of these studies, about the transfer of French/English C, FC and MC on English lexical recognition and production by Vietnamese speakers with knowledge of the particular French words.

Hypotheses on the recognition and production of English lexicon by native Vietnamese speakers who have knowledge of French.

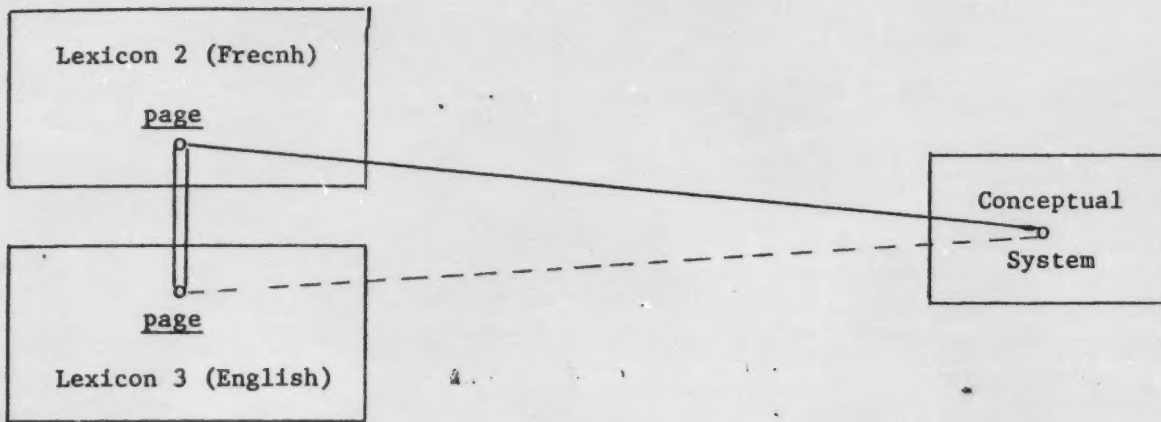
Since Vietnamese is unrelated to both French and English, we posit no transfer to these languages (assumption). We, therefore, limit our hypotheses to the transfer effect of French/English C, FC and MC to English lexical recognition and production by Vietnamese who know French.

When a Vietnamese attempts to understand, in some context, an English word that is a C of the French word, and the person knows this French equivalent, earlier experience with the relatedness of French and English will invite a guess of the meaning of the English word, and the guess will be correct. If the word is a FC of the French word, the Vietnamese has no particular strategy for guessing the correct meaning, and the correctness of the guess is merely a function of the person's English word knowledge (no transfer is possible). In the case of MC, the person encounters a word which appears to have the same or similar form of a French word that is familiar, and is led on the wrong track, which leads to an incorrect notion in the conceptual system.

In English production, the opposite approach is taken. If the Vietnamese does not know the particular English words, an attempt is made to transfer the French form to English. This will yield correct results where C are concerned, but incorrect in the cases of FC and MC. After some experience with English forms, the person is likely to notice the French form for FC and will need to develop other means for producing such English words. As in the case of English recognition, MC are the most problematic. The production of an English MC appears to be obvious, given knowledge of a French word with similar form. However, this leads to an incorrect response.

These three types of lexical relationships can be diagrammed as shown in Figure 7.

Cognates



Formal Contrasts



o - - - - o the correct links between English and the conceptual system to be established

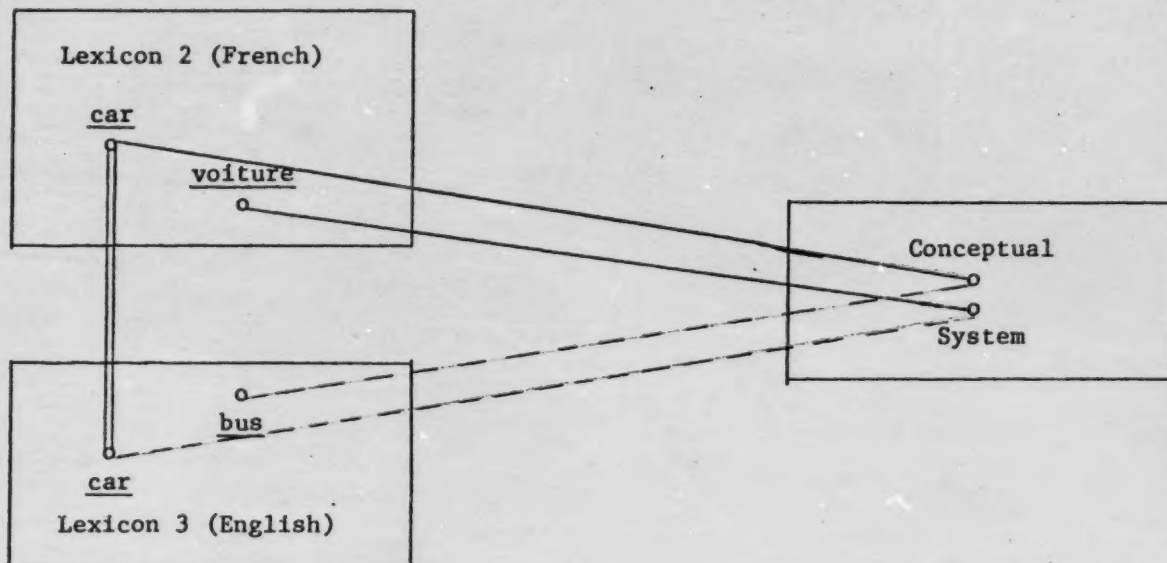
o ——— o the correct links between French and the conceptual system already known

o ——— o the transfer lines between French and English

Figure 7

Figure 7 (cont.)

Misleading Cognates



o- - - -o the correct links between English and the conceptual system to be established

o———o the correct links between French and the conceptual system already known

o====o the transfer lines between French and English

For the case of cognates, the transfer is positive. In the case of MC it is negative. Since the last case is somewhat ambiguous, the following illustration may clarify the situation: If a Vietnamese speaker has to recognize the English car, the speaker will think that it is a cognate with the French car and will, in doing so, reach for an incorrect notion in the conceptual system. As English bus $\neq$ French voiture, an incorrect semantic interpretation will be made. If the same speaker has to produce English bus or coach and knows the French word car, this also will yield the expression of a concept other than what was intended (English car = French voiture $\neq$ French car).

Our hypothesis is that Vietnamese, who know the particular corresponding French words, produce significantly fewer errors in C than in FC, and and significantly fewer errors in FC than in MC, in both recognition and production of the related English words. In cases where the particular French word is not known, the number of correct guesses in recognition and production will just be a function of English word knowledge. Such words should manifest a different response pattern from those influenced by French knowledge, at least for those Vietnamese speakers in the initial stages of English language acquisition. The following experiment tests this hypothesis.

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were 54 male and 34 female recent Vietnamese immigrants to the United States, with little English knowledge. Their average age was 30.06 years (with a range of 17-63 years) and they have been in this country for an average of 6.54 months. For those knowing French, the average length of French study was 6.35 years. Contact was made with the subjects via various Indo-Chinese resettlement programs and elementary English classes in the San Francisco Bay Area, and subjects were asked to participate by administrators in the various institutes. Subjects were randomly assigned to receive one of two test forms.

Materials

Sixty nouns were selected (20 each of C, FC and MC) on the basis of frequency counts of French (Mackey et al., 1966; Gougenheim, 1967, and Juilland, 1970) and English (Carroll et al., 1971; Wei & Light, 1973, and Abbas, 1979) to achieve comparable frequencies for each of the three lists of C, FC and MC. Both a Vietnamese-English phrase book (Duong Thanh Bihn, 1975) and an English-Vietnamese phrase book (Nguyen Hy Quang, 1975) were consulted. Various sources were also consulted for the French/English cognates (Hammer, 1978), formal contrast (Mackey et al., 1966), and misleading cognates (Boillot, 1930; Anderson & Hammer, 1938; Seward,

1947, and Koessler, 1975). Preference was given to high frequency "survival" concepts which would be important to recent immigrants. Obvious semantic voids in either Vietnamese or English were excluded. These 60 nouns were eventually reduced to 30 (10 of each type of lexical contrast), and were each embedded into a sentence which allowed for a natural lexical recognition and production task, avoiding situations where the context clearly gives away the meaning of the word. (See Appendix 1 for a list of the 30 nouns used.)

The definitive test consisted of one of two randomly selected orders of the 30 sentences (see Appendixes 2 and 3). Within each sentence, the target word, designated with a circle around it, appeared in either Vietnamese or English. The circled word in each sentence was to be translated into English and French when appearing in Vietnamese and into Vietnamese and French when appearing in English. It was randomly decided which of the cognate target words would appear in Vietnamese and which in English, and likewise with the formal contrasts and misleading cognates. Those target words which appeared in English in the first random order of the test appeared in Vietnamese in the other order, and vice versa. Therefore, no target word appeared in both English and Vietnamese within the same test form.

Answer sheets were provided, with the column heads of "English", "Vietnamese" and "French" (written in Vietnamese). For each test item, the inappropriate language was crossed out (e.g., when the target word appeared in English, the English box was made unavailable). This served

the purpose of making sure that the subjects indicated their responses in the appropriate column and, also, to insure that they understood which language the target word appeared in. In all cases the French column was left free, as in each case the subjects were asked to indicate the French word, if it was known.

Subjects attended the testing session in variously sized groups. Once assembled, subjects were randomly given a test booklet containing written instructions in Vietnamese, a biographical questionnaire, one of the two test forms and its corresponding answer sheet. Time was given for the subjects to read the instructions (explaining the translation task, filling in the "French" column whenever possible, and guessing when unsure, as well as stressing that spelling is not crucial, emphasizing the need to work independently, and reassuring the subjects that their results on this task will have no bearing on finding a job in the U.S., etc.). Time was allowed for questions, and a Vietnamese speaker was available throughout the entire session to answer any questions.

The test was not specifically timed, although a maximum of one hour was given. Subjects returned the test booklet and answer sheet to the experimenter when completed, and were thanked for their participation.

Design

A 3 X 2 factorial design with repeated measures was used, with target words either being French-English cognates, formal contrasts or misleading cognates and target words appearing in either Vietnamese or English within each sentence (making the task one of either recognition or production of English).

Results

Due to the nature of the hypothesis, the results were not analyzed as presented in the Design section. First, as the hypothesis suggests an effect of French knowledge of a specific word on learning its English counterpart, the words, themselves, act as subjects in the analysis. Subjects would only be of interest if they either knew all 30 words in French, or none of the 30 words in French. This experiment was not designed to make any claims about people who speak French versus those who do not, specifically, but rather, investigates the effect of particular word knowledge.

Each target word was presented in both languages (as when it appeared in English in one of the test forms, it appeared in Vietnamese in the other) and the data were tabulated as shown in Figure 8.

		<u>Responses</u>							
		<u>F/E</u>	<u>F/V</u>	<u>F/-E</u>	<u>F/-V</u>	<u>-F/E</u>	<u>-F/V</u>	<u>-F/-E</u>	<u>-F/-V</u>
Cognates	1								
	.								
	.								
	.								
		10							
Formal Contrasts	11								
	.								
	.								
	.								
		20							
Misleading Cognates	21								
	.								
	.								
	.								
		30							

F = French E = English V = Vietnamese
A negative sign (-) preceding any letter indicates
that an error was made in that language.

Figure 8

In order to analyze the results, an assumption was made by the researchers. It was decided that English knowledge was demonstrated whenever the subject gave a correct response in English or Vietnamese (columns headed F/E, F/V, -F/E, -F/V in the above table). This is obviously the case when a subject produces the correct response in English (production), but it is also the case when a correct response is given in Vietnamese, as the subject has to have read an English target word in order to produce the Vietnamese (recognition).

The major analysis of the data, therefore, interprets the results by looking at three types of lexical contrasts (cognates, formal contrasts and misleading cognates) over two levels of English knowledge (where the French equivalent was either known or not known). Percentages of the total number of correct responses for each cell are as shown in Table 2.

PERCENT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT RESPONSES GIVEN ENGLISH KNOWLEDGE

	<u>French Knowledge</u>	<u>Non-French Knowledge</u>
<u>Cognates</u>	37.61	32.28
<u>Formal Contrasts</u>	28.67	51.72
<u>Misleading Cognates</u>	13.93	30.39

Table 2

Figure 9 is a graphic representation of the results, showing the trend of the effect of French knowledge on learning English words, broken down according to recognition and production.

THE EFFECT OF FRENCH KNOWLEDGE ON ENGLISH RECOGNITION AND PRODUCTION

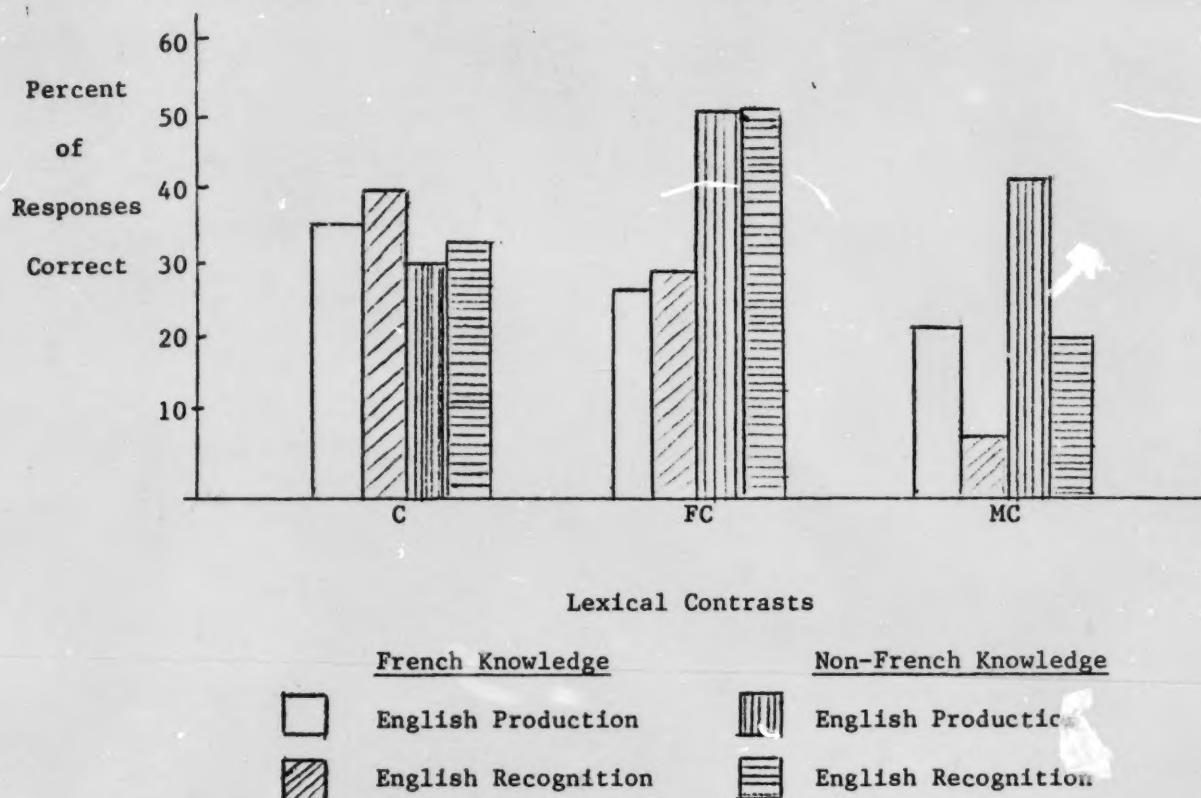


Figure 9

There is a statistically significant effect of type of lexical contrast when French knowledge is demonstrated, with French-English cognates known at a higher rate than formal contrasts, which are known at a higher rate than misleading cognates ($F = 29.19$, $df = 2/27$, $p < .001$). A multiple comparison test shows that all levels of this factor are significantly different from each other (Newman-Keuls: $r = 3$, crit. diff. = 7.76; $r = 2$, crit. diff. = 6.43). Without French knowledge, a significant effect of the type of lexical contrast is observed ($F = 9.38$, $df = 2/27$, $p < .001$). This significant effect is attributed to the high percentage of correct translations of formal contrasts, however, as evidenced by a multiple comparison test (Newman-Keuls: $r = 3$, crit. diff. = 7.76; $r = 2$, crit. diff. = 6.43). A check was made on the distinction

between production (translating Vietnamese into English) and recognition (translating English into Vietnamese), and the data suggest no significant difference between the two ($F = 1.42$, $df = 1/58$, $p > .05$).

DISCUSSION

The data appears to support the hypothesis that the transfer effect of items from French to English overrules word knowledge. Using 30 common words, the case where transfer effects are beneficial (C) produces the most correct translations. The case where transfer effects serve no purpose (FC) produces fewer correct responses, and the case where transfer effects produce error (MC) yields the worst results.

The fact that significant results were also obtained for the non-French knowledge group does not weaken the theory. The multiple comparison test verifies that the results are statistically significant due to the FC group only. As there is no systematic reason why these words should be significantly easier than any others (see Appendix 1 for a list of words), it is reasonable that chance is a factor in this case. Furthermore, as the results for French and non-French knowledge yield different trends, there is evidence that knowledge of French has a direct bearing on learning English. The purpose of this study is only to look at the effect of knowing a second language (L2) and learning a third (L3), when the mother tongue (L1) is unrelated to either L2 or L3 and L2 and L3 are linguistically related. Therefore, this research is only concerned with the fact that knowledge of the French word influences learning the English counterpart, and not how English words are acquired when

the related French is not in the person's vocabulary.

Important to the theory, also, is the fact that the transfer effect is observed both during recognition and production. The trends are the same for both tasks, and in that there is no statistically significant difference between the two, over the three types of lexical contrasts, we can be fairly sure that the transfer effect is not merely an artifact of only one aspect of language use. The present results suggest that the transfer effect is present in both of the necessary skills for mastering a language -- recognition and production.

Additional observations of the nature of some of the responses, although not statistically analyzed, suggest the strength of the transfer effect, in that the reverse effect is also noted. Vietnamese speakers knowing the English word tend to transfer this knowledge to French, if they think that these languages are similar for the particular word (e.g., indicating an English word wall and a French word walle, when the French translation is mur). Such findings are indicative of the presence of the transfer effect of linguistically related languages.

Conclusions for psycholinguistic theory on lexical transfer processes.

Ulijn (in press) concludes that if a thorough conceptual analysis is of utmost importance in reading a foreign language, all types of lexical contrasts between foreign and native language will hamper, since content words are the main carriers of meaning in the text. In the Shadok project data, there was an indication that L1/L2/L3 cognates were easier to recognize than L1/L2/L3 misleading cognates. This indication was observed for both Dutch (L1) and English (L2) by Dutch engineering students reading

French (L3). These indications are largely confirmed as effects in an L1/L2/L3 setting, where L1 = Vietnamese, L2 = French and L3 = English, in an English lexical recognition and production task for Vietnamese native speakers knowing the target words in French.

Furthermore, formal contrasts, probably the largest category of lexical contrast in any language pair, appear in the middle of the range of difficulty. Vietnamese, knowing French and beginning to read English, are helped by French/English cognates (positive transfer), "misled" by misleading cognates (negative transfer) and do not receive any help or interference from formal contrasts (no transfer). The successful recognition of this category is just a function of word knowledge.

Thus, as far as lexical transfer processes are concerned, lexical recognition and production are quite similar. Relations between conceptual system and lexicon seem to be comparable in both cases, whereas in other subsystems of the language process, certain activities are limited to production, and others to recognition (e.g., the script recognizer and sentence/text parser in reading, and the sentence/text generator and script producer in writing; Kempen, 1976).

Although the present authors strongly believe that our data support our hypothesis, we realize that it is important not to overgeneralize the results. This study is limited to a beginning knowledge of English. Lexical transfer effects are minor, comparatively, in advanced stages of learning, as has been demonstrated with the German language (van Weeren, 1977) and the English language (Huisjes-Schreuder, 1978) acquired by Dutch students. In these advanced stages of language learning, even

misleading cognates produced relatively few errors. Furthermore, Jordens (1979) has demonstrated that L1-L2 similarity or transparency is an important factor in the rejection or acceptance of idiomatic German by Dutch students, but that this effect diminishes with the amount of learning. Whereas first year students tend to rely heavily on transparency, fourth year students do not, at all.

Additionally, it should be remembered that the present study is limited to written language. Transfer effects in oral language are probably largely affected by the pronunciation of the particular words. Vietnamese, French, and English phonological systems are so vastly different that knowledge of French pronunciation does not even allow for correct recognition of French words pronounced as English (cognates). On the production side, French/English cognates pronounced in a Vietnamese or French manner would be barely intelligible to a native English speaker.

Despite the fact that we warn against overgeneralizing the present results beyond written language at the beginning stages of learning, we, nevertheless, believe that these lexical transfer effects discovered at the sentence level also hold for larger portions of text (for a recent study on text comprehension, see Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). Furthermore, the lexical transfer effects are also valid for other related language pairs (e.g., English/German, English/Spanish, Dutch/German, and Russian/Polish) although replication studies are obviously needed with adapted word and sentence materials. In analyzing other language pairs, it is important to define the lexical distance between the languages observed.

The present study only researched the three basic types of lexical contrasts. Relations between conceptual system and lexicon are not of a one-to-one correspondence. C, FC and MC often occur in combinations as homonymic or synonymic setting on one language, and not in the other. Further research along these lines would be challenging, as the lexical and conceptual variables involved in such settings are not easily manipulated experimentally.

Implications for teaching English to native Vietnamese speakers.

The importance of cognate-based teaching of a foreign language related to the native language is largely demonstrated by Hammer (1978). If English and French share 11,000 words, the learner needs very few new words. At least in the beginning, it is only necessary to learn how to apply knowledge of the person's first language to the second, and related language. The commonalities between French and English are also relevant for multilingual settings in which French or English is the second language and the other is the third.

In teaching English to immigrants, sometimes the native language is taken into account. However, for different reasons, immigrants may know several languages. If English is related to any of these languages, it makes sense to consider this factor and place the students in homogeneous ESL classes. African, Arab, Caribbean (Haitian) or Polynesian students might know French, and within the classroom setting, this lexical transfer effect could be utilized in the teaching of English.

Once validated, the test used in this experiment could serve as a placement test, in an adapted version, even for other (Indo-Chinese) immigrants. At the least, it could function as a tool to measure the French bias of Vietnamese speakers. English/French lexical transfer seems to be relevant, also, for multilingual settings such as the Dutch secondary school, where English and French are acquired simultaneously. Too little is presently known about this type of acquisition.

In conclusion, lexical transfer can be positive, however, it can also be negative. Too much cautioning against the traps of the misleading cognates could be counterproductive with more errors being produced than avoided. It might be recommendable to provide ESL or FL students with exercises based implicitly on lexical contrasts and not exaggerate explicit teaching of the "wolves in sheep's clothing" (MC), particularly not in the beginning of the learning process. Whenever explicit teaching is needed, translation seems to be the only reliable way to elucidate the exact meaning of the C, FC and MC shared by the two languages involved.

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APPENDIX 1

The 30 English nouns used in the experiment
 (followed by the French words if their spelling is different)

<u>Cognates</u>	<u>Formal Contrasts</u>	<u>Misleading Cognates</u>
age/âge	bed/lit	anniversary/anniversaire
cousin	bird/oiseau	car
fruit	day/jour	cart/carte
million/million	door/porte	cave
page	foot/pied	coin
police	pen/plume	crayon
prison	street/rue	fabric/fabrique
restaurant	wall/mur	lecture
table	water/eau	library/librairie
village	window/fenêtre	patron

APPENDIX 2: English translations of the sentences used in the experimentFormal Contrasts

1. There is a beautiful bird over there.
2. His foot was badly injured in the accident.
3. The street was full of people in the evening.
4. At the end of the day, the students returned home.
5. You must have water in order to live.
6. There is only one window in the office.
7. The bed was hard and uncomfortable.
8. The pen fell out of his pocket onto the floor.
9. It was possible to find the door in the darkness.
10. A wall remained standing after the fire.

Misleading Cognates

1. Traveling by car is very exciting.
2. The temperature in the cave was always cool.
3. He couldn't see the coin from where he was standing.
4. The fabric was designed by a highly paid consultant.
5. The picture was drawn with a crayon.
6. We have had many patrons this past year.
7. The lecture was very informative.
8. I found a purse in the library.
9. There is an exhibit of antique carts at the museum.
10. It rained on the day of her anniversary.

APPENDIX 2: English translations (cont.)Cognates

1. That shape can be found on each page.
2. The village that you are looking for is ten miles from here.
3. Cold fruit is always enjoyable during the hot summer.
4. This restaurant is too expensive for my budget.
5. She polished the table for more than an hour.
6. The official asked the refugee about his age.
7. His cousin is visiting from out of town.
8. The unemployment rate will not drop below three million.
9. The police suggested that we leave.
10. The disturbance at the prison caused much alarm.

APPENDIX 3: Form A

1. Foot của anh ta bị thương nặng trong một tai nạn.
2. Có một con bird ở đằng kia.
3. Viên chức hỏi người di cư năm nay bao nhiêu tuổi?
4. Cô ấy đánh bóng cái bàn hơn một tiếng đồng hồ.
5. Street buổi tối hôm ấy đầy những người.
6. Hết day, sinh viên trở về nhà.
7. Đi du lịch bằng car hào hứng lắm.
8. Tắm hình được vẽ bằng bút chì.
9. Từ chỗ anh ta đứng, anh ta không thể nhìn thấy cái coin.
10. Con người phải có nước mới sống được.
11. Có cuộc triển lãm bản đồ ở viện bảo tàng.
12. Trong văn phòng chỉ có một cái cửa sổ.
13. Bài tập đọc rất hấp dẫn.
14. Cảnh sát đề nghị chúng tôi phải đi khỏi chỗ ấy.
15. Village mà anh đang tìm thì cách đây 10 dặm.
16. Trong cave lúc nào cũng mát.
17. Hôm sinh nhật của bà ấy thì trời mưa.
18. Năm vừa qua cửa hàng chúng tôi có nhiều người quản lý.
19. Ta có thể thấy hình đó ở mỗi page.
20. Trong bóng tối mà cũng có thể tìm ra cái cửa ra vào ở chỗ nào?
21. Cái giường ấy cứng quá năm không được thoải mái.
22. Restaurant này rất đắt đối với túi tiền của tôi.

APPENDIX 3: Form A (cont.)

23. Sau vụ cháy chỉ còn một bức tường đứng vững.
24. Cái bút nguyên tú rớt khỏi túi xuống đất.
25. Một người cô văn lương cao đã về kiểu fabric đó.
26. Tỷ lệ thất nghiệp sẽ không xuống dưới ba triệu.
27. Sự khuấy động trong nhà tù làm ai cũng sợ quá.
28. Tôi đã tìm ra cái ví ở tiệm sách.
29. Anh họ của anh ấy từ xa tới chơi.
30. Mùa hè nóng nức fruit lạnh ăn rất thích.

APPENDIX 3: FORM A ANSWER SHEET (c = correct, e = error)

<u>English</u>	<u>Vietnamese</u>	<u>French</u>
1.	bàn chân, chân	pied
2.	chim	oiseau
3. age, old		âge
4. table		table
5.	đường (phố), ngoài	rue
6.	ngày	jour
7.	(c) xe, xe-ô-tô, xe hơi (c) xe du lịch (e) xe buýt, ô-to-buýt	(c) voiture, auto (e) bus, car
8. (c) pencil (e) crayon		crayon
9.	(c) tiền (đồng), đồng xu (e) góc, cạnh	(c) monnaie, pièce (e) coin, angle
10. water		eau
11. (c) maps (e) cards, carts		cartes, plans
12. window		fenêtre
13. (c) reading (e) lecture		(c) lecture (e) discours
14. police		police
15.	ngôi làng làng, xã	village

APPENDIX 3: FORM A (cont.) ANSWER SHEET (c = correct, e = error)

<u>English</u>	<u>Vietnamese</u>	<u>French</u>
16.	(c) hàng (e) ham	(c) grotte (e) cave
17. (c) birthday (e) anniversary		anniversaire
18. (c) boss, manager (e) patron		manager, patron superviseur, gérant
19.	trang chương-giấy	page
20. door		porte
21. bed		lit
22.	hàng ăn, nhà hàng tiến ăn	restaurant
23. wall		mur, paroi
24. pen		bic, plume stylo
25.	(c) vải vóc (e) xương máy	(c) tissu (e) fabrique
26. million		million
27. prison, jail		prison
28. (c) bookstore (e) library		librairie
29. cousin		cousin
30.	trái cây	fruit

APPENDIX 3: Form B

1. Viên chức hỏi người di cư năm nay bao nhiêu age?
2. Police đề nghị chúng tôi phải đi khỏi chỗ ấy.
3. Đường buổi tối hôm ấy đầy những người.
4. Hết ngày sinh viên trở về nhà.
5. Có một con chim ở đấy kia.
6. Trong bóng tối mà cũng có thể tìm ra cái door ở chỗ nào?
7. Đi du lịch bằng xe buýt hào hứng lắm.
8. Cô ấy đánh bóng cái table hơn một tiếng đồng hồ.
9. Tôi đã tìm ra cái ví ở library.
10. Hàng ăn này rất đắt đối với túi tiền tôi.
11. Tú chò anh ta đừng anh ta không thể nhìn thấy cái góc.
12. Một người cô văn lương cao đã về kiểu xuống máy đó.
13. Có cuộc triển lãm carts cô ở viên bảo tàng.
14. Cái pen rút khỏi túi xuống đất.
15. Mùa hè nóng nước trái cây lạnh ăn rất thích.
16. Ta có thể thấy hình do ở mỗi trang.
17. Năm vừa qua cửa hàng chúng tôi có nhiều patrons.
18. Trong hầm rượu lúc nào cũng mát.
19. Làng mà anh đang tìm thì cách đây 10 dặm.
20. Tỷ lệ thất nghiệp sẽ không xuống dưới ba million.

APPENDIX 3: Form B (ont.)

21. Bàn chân của anh ta bị thương nặng trong một tai nạn.
22. Tấm hình được vẽ bằng crayon.
23. Trong văn phòng chỉ có một cái window.
24. Cousin của anh ấy tú xa tới chơi.
25. Hôm anniversary của bà ấy thì trời mưa.
26. Sự khuấy động trong prison làm ai cũng sợ quá.
27. Bài lecture rất hấp dẫn.
28. Cái bed ấy cứng quá, nằm không được thoải mái.
29. Con người phải có water mới sống được.
30. Sau vụ cháy chỉ còn một wall đứng vững.

APPENDIX 3: FORM B: ANSWER SHEET (c = correct, e = error)

<u>English</u>	<u>Vietnamese</u>	<u>French</u>
1.	tuổi	âge
2.	cảnh-sát lính kín	police gendarme
3. street		rue
4. day		jour
5. bird		oiseau
6.	cửa ra vào	porte
(c) bus 7. (e) car		car, bus
8.	bàn	table
9.	(c) thiế viên (e) tiēm sách	(c) bibliothèque (e) librairie
10. restaurant		restaurant
(c) corner 11. (e) coin		coin, angle
(c) factory 12. (e) fabric		fabrique
13.	(c) xe-keo (e) bán-đồ	(c) charettes (e) cartes
14.	bút mưc, viēt mưc bút nguyên tu, bút máy	stylo, plume
15. fruit		fruit

APPENDIX 3: FORM B (cont.) ANSWER SHEET (c = correct, e = error)

<u>English</u>	<u>Vietnamese</u>	<u>French</u>
16. page		page
17.	khách	(c) clients (e) patrons
(c) cellar 18. (e) cave		cave
19. village		village
20.	triệu	million
21. foot		pied
22.	(c) phấn mầu, viết mầu bút nê mầu (e) bút chì, viết chì	(c) pastel (e) crayon
23.	cửa-so'	fenêtre
24.	em họ anh họ	cousin
25.	(c) ngày kỷ niệm, ngày lễ (e) sinh nhật	(c) jubilee (e) anniversaire
26.	(nhà) tù	prison
27.	(c) tiên văn (e) tập đọc	(c) conférence (e) lecture
28.	giống	lit
29.	nước	eau
30.	bức tường vách tường	mur

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